# Implementation Security In Cryptography

Lecture 11: Fault Attacks

### Recap

- Till the last lecture
  - Masking...

## Today

• Fault Attacks

- Happens....
- We are all human being (Hope there is no AI agent in my class) :P
- We all learn from our faults....
  - The learning is what I am looking for here



#### Dino buys toys from Jack

#### The postman wants to know what Dino bought for \$15



In the meanwhile Jack prepares the DHL



#### and gives it to the postman



Who kicks it strong enough to break one toy



and gives it to Dino



a week later he monitors Dino's postal order...



Lesson learned: Fault attacks can also extract secrets from tokens!

Hardware faults can have various sources: voltage glitches, light beams, laser beams...

## Faults in Our Crypto...

- Introduction of faults in the normal execution of cryptographic algorithms and analysis of faulty output to obtain the key
- First conceived in 1996 by Boneh, Demillo and Lipton
- E. Biham developed Differential Fault Analysis (DFA) of DES
- Today there are numerous examples of fault analysis of block ciphers such as AES under a variety of fault models and fault injection techniques
- Popular Fault Injection Techniques Clock Glitches, Voltage Glitches, EM and Optical Injection Techniques

#### What Faults are Up To?

#### Serious Security: Rowhammer returns to gaslight your computer

Gaslights produce a telltale flicker when nearby lamps are lit; DRAM values do something similar when nearby memory cells are accessed.

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You're probably familiar with the word *gaslighting*, used to refer to people with the odious habit of lying not merely to cover up their own wrongdoing, but also to make it look as though someone else is at fault, even to the point of getting the other person to doubt their own memory, decency and sanity.

You might not know, however, that the term comes from a 1930s psychological thriller play called <u>Gas Light</u> (spoiler alert) in which a manipulative and murderous husband pretends to spend his evenings out on the town Technology

#### Using just a \$25 device a researcher hacked into Elon Musk's Starlink system

What will the technology mogul have to say about this?



## Faults in Our Crypto...

#### **Small World**

#### Voltage-Glitch









**Clock-Glitch** 

- Tight control on injection timing
  - You can hit the variable you want at a specific instant
- Multi-bit but can be made single-bit too
- Biased fault distribution
- Mainly transient
- Multiple injection challenging

#### **Big World**



- Timing can be controlled but precision is less
  - Target variable must be in RAM for quite sometime
- Single-bit fairly well controllable
- Mainly persistent
- Multiple injection is easier

## A Break From AES...RSA Signature

- Let's talk RSA
- Public key algorithm, Encryption and Signature
  - We talk about signature.
- Simple Idea:
  - Alice generates a secret and a public key.
  - Gives the public key to "Public"
  - Signs a message M with secret key and generates signature C
  - Everyone with the public key can verify that:
    - The C is a valid signature of M
    - C is generated by Alice only and nobody else



### RSA Signature in Brief...

- Alice generates two large primes p, q and computes N = pq
- It also finds *e* and *d*, where  $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi(N)$ , this  $\phi(N)$  is called Eular's totient function and  $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$ , as *p*, *q* are primes.
- *p*, *q*, *d* is secret key
- N, e is the public key
- Sign:  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , compute  $s = m^d \mod N$ , and returns  $s \mid \mid m$
- Verify: Check if m' = = m, where  $m' = s^e \mod N$
- I have omitted some crucial details here for simplicity. But that's not for what we are going to explain..
  - E.g, m is not the message but is a hash of the message..also there are some paddings needed for security...

#### **RSA-CRT**

- CRT stands for **Chinese Reminder Theorem** check it out!!!
- RSA-CRT is a performance optimisation trick...

$$\begin{array}{ll} a \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \\ a \equiv 0 \pmod{q} \end{array} \text{ and } \begin{cases} b \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ b \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \end{cases} \qquad \begin{array}{ll} d_p = d \pmod{p-1} \\ d_q = d \pmod{p-1} \end{cases} \qquad \begin{array}{ll} s_p = m^{d_p} \pmod{p} \\ s_q = m^{d_q} \pmod{p} \end{cases}$$

 $s = a \times s_p + b \times s_q \pmod{N}$ 

### Attacking RSA-CRT...

- Again, we want to find the secret key...So attack the signing process..
- Let's say, for a message m, I can repeat the signature generation process.
- What I do:
  - Generate the correct signature s = sign(m, d)
  - On the same message generate a faulty signature  $\hat{s} = \operatorname{sign}(m, d)$ 
    - Fault happens during the computation of the sign.
    - The fault only corrupts the computation of  $s_p$  or  $s_q$ , but not both

#### Attacking RSA-CRT...

- Let  $\hat{s} = a \times s_p + b \times \hat{s_q} \mod N$
- Let  $s = a \times s_p + b \times s_q \mod N$
- . Let  $\Delta = s \hat{s} = b(s_q \hat{s_q})$
- Now, observe that, since  $b \equiv 0 \mod p$ 
  - $\Delta = b(s_q \hat{s_q})$  is divisible by p
  - So,  $\Delta = kp$ , and  $gcd(s \hat{s}, n) = p$
- Ok, you got p, you know N, so you know q game over!!!
- Attack is also possible if you do not use CRT analysis is slightly different

- Key component of a fault attack
- Attack procedure changes according to the fault model
- Random localized faults
  - Bit/nibble/byte fault
  - Most general model
- Biased faults
  - Device-dependent model
- Instruction skip/modify.
- <u>Constant fault</u>
  - Stuck-at-0/1
- Persistant fault



#### The AES Storv...



#### Looking Inside AES Once Again



## The AES Story...

- The attacker can corrupt one specific round operation of AES.
- One of multiple bytes of the AES state gets corrupted.
- Then what happens?
- We also assume that we have both correct and faulty ciphertext for the same plaintext...
- Where to inject the fault:
  - In round functions
  - In key schedule



## Let there be a fault at 9th round

Let the correct ciphertext be

 $x = (x_1, x_2, \cdots x_{16})$ The faulty ciphertext be  $x' = (x'_1, x'_2, \cdots x'_{16})$ 



#### Let there be a fault at 9th round

$$2f' = S^{-1}(x_1 \oplus k_1) \oplus S^{-1}(x'_1 \oplus k_1)$$
$$f' = S^{-1}(x_8 \oplus k_8) \oplus S^{-1}(x'_8 \oplus k_8)$$
$$f' = S^{-1}(x_{11} \oplus k_{11}) \oplus S^{-1}(x'_{11} \oplus k_{11})$$
$$3f' = S^{-1}(x_{14} \oplus k_{14}) \oplus S^{-1}(x'_{14} \oplus k_{14})$$

• On an average there is one solution to the equation:  $S^{-1}(X) \oplus S^{-1}(X + \alpha) = \beta - why?$ 

- Two possible solutions can be X = 0 and  $X = \alpha$ . In that case  $\beta = \alpha^{-1}$ .
- If not, then we can transform this to  $\beta x^2 + \alpha \beta x + \alpha = 0$  which (may) have 2 more solutions
- If X = 0 or  $X = \alpha$ , then the equation can have two more solutions in  $GF(2^n)$ , depending on *n* is even or odd. Solutions have form  $\{0, \alpha, e\alpha, e^2\alpha\}$ , with *e* being a field  $(GF(2^n))$  element. depends on some deep finite field tricks...

So, it can have 0, 2, or 4 solutions — on average 1 solutions, we observed....

• Thus for one value of f' there is 1 value for  $k_1$ ,  $k_8$ ,  $k_{11}$ ,  $k_{14}$  which satisfies the equations.

Thus for all the 2<sup>8</sup> values of f', there are 2<sup>8</sup> values for k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>8</sub>, k<sub>11</sub>, k<sub>14</sub>.

Thus the total size of AES key is 2<sup>32</sup>

#### Let there be a fault at 9th round

- With one faulty cipher text:
  - Number of possible values per 4 bytes of the key is around 2<sup>8</sup>.
  - There are 2<sup>32</sup> possible candidates for 128 bits of the AES key.
  - Brute force key is thus possible!

$$\begin{aligned} 2f' &= S^{-1}(x_1 \oplus k_1) \oplus S^{-1}(x_1' \oplus k_1) \\ f' &= S^{-1}(x_8 \oplus k_8) \oplus S^{-1}(x_8' \oplus k_8) \\ f' &= S^{-1}(x_{11} \oplus k_{11}) \oplus S^{-1}(x_{11}' \oplus k_{11}) \\ 3f' &= S^{-1}(x_{14} \oplus k_{14}) \oplus S^{-1}(x_{14}' \oplus k_{14}) \end{aligned}$$

#### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection



## Let's Improve...8th Round Injection...

- Search space reduced in two phases.
- First phase:
  - > Find the  $2^{32}$  candidates of  $10^{\text{th}}$  round key.
- Second phase
  - > Deduce four differential equation from differences  $\{2f', f', f', 3f'\}$ .
  - > Reduce the  $2^{32}$  candidates to  $2^8$  using the four differential equation.

#### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection...



#### **AES Key Schedule**





#### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection...

$$\mathbf{K}^{9} = \begin{pmatrix} k_{1} \oplus S(k_{14} \oplus k_{10}) \oplus h_{10} & k_{5} \oplus k_{1} & k_{9} \oplus k_{5} & k_{13} \oplus k_{9} \\ k_{2} \oplus S(k_{15} \oplus k_{11}) & k_{6} \oplus k_{2} & k_{10} \oplus k_{6} & k_{14} \oplus k_{10} \\ k_{3} \oplus S(k_{16} \oplus k_{12}) & k_{7} \oplus k_{3} & k_{11} \oplus k_{7} & k_{15} \oplus k_{11} \\ k_{4} \oplus S(k_{13} \oplus k_{9}) & k_{8} \oplus k_{4} & k_{12} \oplus k_{8} & k_{16} \oplus k_{12} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{K}^{10} = \{k_{1}, k_{1}, k_{1} \oplus k_{1$$

$$\mathbf{K}^{10} = \{k_1, k_2, \cdots k_{16}\}$$

• AES key schedule is invertible

#### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection...



#### 8th Round Injection...How does the Equation Look?

$$\begin{split} 2\,f' &= S^{-1} \Big( \mathbf{14} \left( S^{-1}(x_1 \oplus k_1) \oplus k_1' \right) \oplus \mathbf{11} \Big( S^{-1}(x_{14} \oplus k_{14}) \oplus k_2' \Big) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{13} \left( S^{-1}(x_{11} \oplus k_{11}) \oplus k_3' \right) \oplus 9 \left( S^{-1}(x_8 \oplus k_8) \oplus k_4' \right) \Big) \oplus \\ &\quad S^{-1} \Big( \mathbf{14} \left( S^{-1}(x_1' \oplus k_1) \oplus k_1' \right) \oplus \mathbf{11} \Big( S^{-1}(x_{14}' \oplus k_{14}) \oplus k_2' \Big) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{13} \left( S^{-1}(x_{11}' \oplus k_{11}) \oplus k_3' \right) \oplus 9 \left( S^{-1}(x_8' \oplus k_8) \oplus k_4' \right) \Big) \\ &= S^{-1} \Big( \mathbf{14} \left( S^{-1}(x_1 \oplus k_1) \oplus ((k_1 \oplus S(k_{14} \oplus k_{10}) \oplus h_{10})) \right) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{11} \left( S^{-1}(x_{14} \oplus k_{14}) \oplus (k_2 \oplus S(k_{15} \oplus k_{11})) \right) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{13} \left( S^{-1}(x_{11} \oplus k_{11}) \oplus (k_3 \oplus S(k_{16} \oplus k_{12})) \right) \oplus \\ &\quad 9 \left( S^{-1}(x_8 \oplus k_8) \oplus (k_4 \oplus S(k_{13} \oplus k_9)) \right) \Big) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{11} \left( S^{-1}(x_{14}' \oplus k_{14}) \oplus (k_2 \oplus S(k_{15} \oplus k_{11})) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{13} \left( S^{-1}(x_{11}' \oplus k_{11}) \oplus (k_3 \oplus S(k_{16} \oplus k_{12})) \right) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{13} \left( S^{-1}(x_{11}' \oplus k_{11}) \oplus (k_3 \oplus S(k_{16} \oplus k_{12})) \right) \oplus \\ &\quad \mathbf{9} \left( S^{-1}(x_8' \oplus k_8) \oplus (k_4 \oplus S(k_{13} \oplus k_9)) \right) \Big) \end{split}$$

We have 4 such equations

### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection...

- Time complexity of previous attack:  $O(2^{32})$
- Time complexity of this attack:  $O(2^8)$
- Just with one fault injection!!!

## **Diagonal Fault Attack**

- Multi Byte Faults (more practical)
  - Attacker induces fault at the input of the 8<sup>th</sup> round in some bytes
  - Fault value should be non-zero but can be arbitrary

### **Diagonal Fault Attack**

b	b	b	b
00	01	02	03
b	b	b	b
10	11	12	13
b	b	b	b
20	21	22	23
b	b	b	b
30	31	32	33

**Diagonal**: A diagonal is a set of four bytes of the state matrix,

where diagonal i is defined as follows:

 $D_i = \{ b_{j,(j+i)mod4} \quad ; \quad 0 \le j < 4 \}$ 

According to the above definition and with reference to the state matrix of AES (refer figure) we obtain the following four diagonals.

 $D_0 = (b_{00}, b_{11}, b_{22}, b_{33})$  $D_1 = (b_{01}, b_{12}, b_{23}, b_{30})$  $D_2 = (b_{02}, b_{13}, b_{20}, b_{31})$  $D_3 = (b_{03}, b_{10}, b_{21}, b_{32})$


- M0: One Diagonal affected.
- M1: Two Diagonals affected.
- M2: Three Diagonals affected.
- M3: Four Diagonals affected.



Faults induced in Diagonal D<sub>0</sub> at the input of 8<sup>th</sup> round AES are all equivalent.



$$\mathbf{CT} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ x_5 & x_6 & x_7 & x_8 \\ x_9 & x_{10} & x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{13} & x_{14} & x_{15} & x_{16} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{CT'} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1' & x_2' & x_3' & x_4' \\ x_5' & x_6' & x_7' & x_8' \\ x_9' & x_{10}' & x_{11}' & x_{12}' \\ x_{13}' & x_{14}' & x_{15}' & x_{16}' \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{K_{10}} = \begin{pmatrix} k_1 & k_2 & k_3 & k_4 \\ k_5 & k_6 & k_7 & k_8 \\ k_9 & k_{10} & k_{11} & k_{12} \\ k_{13} & k_{14} & k_{15} & k_{16} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{split} ISB(x_1+k_1) + ISB(x_1'+k_1) &= 2[ISB(x_8+k_8) + ISB(x_8'+k_8)]\\ ISB(x_8+k_8) + ISB(x_8'+k_8) &= ISB(x_{11}+k_{11}) + ISB(x_{11}'+k_{11})\\ ISB(x_{14}+k_{14}) + ISB(x_{14}'+k_{14}) &= 3[ISB(x_8+k_8) + ISB(x_8'+k_8)] \end{split}$$

- There are in total 4 such systems of equations for a diagonal  $D_0$ .
- Each system of equation gives 2<sup>8</sup> keys on an average.
- AES key size gets reduced to 2<sup>32</sup>.

## **Diagonal Fault Attack: 2 Diagonals Corrupted**



$$a_{0} = 2F_{1} + 3F_{6}$$

$$a_{1} = F_{1} + 2F_{6}$$

$$a_{2} = F_{1} + F_{6}$$

$$a_{3} = 3F_{1} + F_{6}$$

$$a_{3} = 3F_{1} + F_{6}$$

## **Diagonal Fault Attack: 2 Diagonals Corrupted**

$$a_{0} = ISB(x_{1} + k_{1}) + ISB(x'_{1} + k_{1})$$
  

$$a_{1} = ISB(x_{8} + k_{8}) + ISB(x'_{8} + k_{8})$$
  

$$a_{2} = ISB(x_{11} + k_{11}) + ISB(x'_{11} + k_{11})$$
  

$$a_{3} = ISB(x_{14} + k_{14}) + ISB(x'_{14} + k_{14})$$

- The equation reduces the space of the 4 key bytes of AES to 2<sup>16</sup>
- Two faulty ciphertexts reduce it to a unique value on an average (experimental result).

## **Diagonal Fault Attack: 3 Diagonals Corrupted**



$$a_{0} = 2F_{1} + 3F_{6} + F_{11}$$

$$a_{1} = F_{1} + 2F_{6} + 3F_{11}$$

$$a_{2} = F_{1} + F_{6} + 2F_{11}$$

$$a_{3} = 3F_{1} + F_{6} + F_{11}$$

$$11a_{0} + 13a_{1} = 9a_{2} + 14a_{3}$$

## **Diagonal Fault Attack: 3 Diagonals Corrupted**

$$a_{0} = ISB(x_{1} + k_{1}) + ISB(x'_{1} + k_{1})$$
  

$$a_{1} = ISB(x_{8} + k_{8}) + ISB(x'_{8} + k_{8})$$
  

$$a_{2} = ISB(x_{11} + k_{11}) + ISB(x'_{11} + k_{11})$$
  

$$a_{3} = ISB(x_{14} + k_{14}) + ISB(x'_{14} + k_{14})$$

- The equation reduces the space of the 4 key bytes of AES to 2<sup>24</sup>
- Four faulty ciphertexts reduce it to a unique value on an average (experimental result).

### **Diagonal Fault Attack: Practical Injection**

	Г							<u> </u>	01/0	1.00	100	100	120		
		Clock	No	Model 0	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3		37.9	20	122	145	225	0	
		Frequency (MHz)	Fault	(M0)	(M1)	(M2)	(M3)	/	38.0	158	191	129	34	0	
		36.0	512	0	0	0	0		98.1	97	116	185	185	ň	
		36.1	512	0	0	0	0	1	98.0	40	107	108	147	ő	
_	_	36.2	512	0	0	0	_0_/		30.2	+ #0-	127	190	-147 -		+
		36.3	510	2	0	0	9		38.3	26	69	155	257	5	
		36.4	511	1	0	0	0		38.4	17	62	137	254	42	
		36.5	508	4	0	0	0		38.5	0	20	68	361	63	
		36.6	504	8	0	0	0		38.6	0	0	16	319	177	
		36.7	507	5	0	0	0		38.7	0	2	20	293	197	
		36.8	490	22	0	9	0		38.8	0	1	8	290	213	
		36.9	489	23	0	0	0		38.9	0	11	42	368	91	
		37.0	419	79	14	0	0		99.0	15	50	107	908	29	
		37.1	448	60	4	0	0		90.1	10	0	10	107	901	
J		37.2	434	64	13	1	0		39.1		2	12	197	140	
٦		37.3	408	94	15	0	0		39.2	0	5	26	339	142	
	$\setminus  $	37.4	408	99	5	0	0		39.3	0	3	11	285	213	
		37.5	248	226	38	0	0		39.4	0	0	0	134	378	
		37.6	214	205	84	9	0		39.5	0	0	6	138	368	
		37.7	128	205	122	57	0		39.6	0	0	0	150	362	
		37.8	76	180	133	123	0		39.7	0	0	0	21	491	
		37.9	20	122	145	225	0		39.8	0	0	0	18	494	
		38.0	158	191	129	34	0		90.0	ŏ	ň	ň	14	408	
		38.1	27	116	185	185	0		40.0	ŏ	ő	ŏ	0	×10	
	L	38.2	40	127	198	147	0		40.0	10	0	0	0	512	

**ATTACK REGION** 



Source: Wikipedia



The Sorcerer's Apprenctice's Guide to Fault Attacks, FDTC 2006



L16 = R15 $R16 = S(R15 \oplus K16) \oplus L15$ 

#### The Sorcerer's Apprenctice's Guide to Fault Attacks, FDTC 2006



L16 = R15 $R16 = S(R15 \oplus K16) \oplus L15$ 

After Fault...

L16' = R15' $R16' = S(R15' \oplus K16) \oplus L15$ 

#### • The Sorcerer's Apprenctice's Guide to Fault Attacks, FDTC 2006



L16 = R15 $R16 = S(R15 \oplus K16) \oplus L15$ 

After Fault...

L16' = R15' $R16' = S(R15' \oplus K16) \oplus L15$ 

Calculate the differential...

 $R16 \oplus R16' = S(R15 \oplus K16) \oplus L15 \oplus S(R15' \oplus K16) \oplus L15$  $= S(L16 \oplus K16) \oplus S(L16' \oplus K16)$ 

#### • The Sorcerer's Apprenctice's Guide to Fault Attacks, FDTC 2006

### **DES Attack**

- Note that here both input and output differentials are known...
  - Unlike AES where only a pattern of the input differentials are known
- So, you can solve the equations for k as the only unknown
  - Note that DES S-Boxes are  $6 \times 4$ ...so 6 bits has to be guessed simultaneously...
  - You can also use the differential distribution table mentioned in the last class to find the number of solutions for each S-Box

### **DES Attack**

- Each equation gives 4-5 solutions for the key on average...
- So, for 8 S-boxs, roughly 2<sup>18</sup> ((5)<sup>8</sup>) suggestions remain for the last round key.
- Another issue with DES although the key size is 56, round key size is 48.
- So  $2^{48}$  reduces to  $2^{18}$  total master key can be found with  $2^{18} \times 2^8 = 2^{26}$  exhaustive search...

### Using Multiple Ciphertexts



- Common strategy for reducing attack complexity
  - Applies irrespective of AES or DES or any other cipher..
  - Let's try for AES...
  - In general, multiplying the number of faulty ciphertext directly reduces the final key space size and therefore the complexity of the exhaustive search

#### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection



### Let's Improve...8th Round Injection

- For 1 column, a single injection reduces the key space from  $2^{32}$  to  $2^8$ .
- 2<sup>8</sup> is basically the expected number of remaining subkeys
- This is done by satisfying the equation system.
- The probability of a given (4-byte) subkey satisfying this equation is  $\frac{2^8}{2^{32}} = 2^{-24}$ .
- Now, consider another fault injection
- We can take intersections between the key suggestions provided by these two injections...
- For 2-injections the probability will become  $(2^{-24})^2$ .
- Expected number of remain subkeys:  $2^{32} \times (2^{-24})^2 < 1$  — So practically only one subkey will remain

 $2F_{1} = S^{-1}(c_{1} \oplus k_{1}) \oplus S^{-1}(c_{1} \oplus A_{1} \oplus k_{1})$   $F_{1} = S^{-1}(c_{5} \oplus k_{5}) \oplus S^{-1}(c_{5} \oplus A_{5} \oplus k_{5})$   $F_{1} = S^{-1}(c_{9} \oplus k_{9}) \oplus S^{-1}(c_{9} \oplus A_{9} \oplus k_{9})$   $3F_{1} = S^{-1}(c_{13} \oplus k_{13}) \oplus S^{-1}(c_{13} \oplus A_{13} \oplus k_{13})$ 

#### A General Model for Differential Fault Attacks

#### • Identify a distinguisher:

- Based on fault patterns...
- **Example**: For AES, 8th round injection, the distinguisher is the linear pattern observed due to fault propagation
- For DES, the distinguisher is  $R16 \oplus R16'$  a known value and part of ciphertext!!!
- Distiguisher is mostly an input differential  $\Delta_i$ .
- Always try to form equations of the form  $S^{-1}(X) \oplus S^{-1}(X + \alpha) = \beta$ , where  $\beta$  is a (part of) the distinguisher..
- **Divide-and Conquer**: Find a distinguisher evaluation strategy so that you do not need to guess a lot of keys together.
  - For AES attacks, this distinguisher evaluation complexity was  $2^{36}$  we have a divide-and conquer strategy which guesses 32-bits of key at once (independently for 4 columns)
  - For DES it is  $2^9$
- **Calculate the Remaining Key Space:** Estimate the number of solutions to your equation system. That gives you the number of remaining keys after the attack. You have to search these keys exhaustively...

### Fault Attacks (FA)



- Key component of a fault attack
- Attack procedure changes according to the fault model
- Random localized faults
  - Bit/nibble/byte fault
  - Most general model
- Biased faults
  - Device-dependent model
- Instruction skip/modify.
- <u>Constant fault</u>
  - Stuck-at-0/1



### Fault Attacks (FA)

- Inject fault in the device during encryption/decryption.
- Analyze the faulty response to extract the secret
  - Differential fault attacks.
  - Biased fault attacks (SFA/SIFA).





#### The Key Idea:

- Biased fault injection makes the state statistically biased.
- This bias is visible only for correct key guess.
- Such attacks require several faulty ciphertexts



Example: Consider a stuck-at-0 fault at the LSB bit of the intermediate state. The faulty state can only assume even values.





- Similar to SCA attacks in some sense...
- Key reason: The bias is only observable while the key guess is correct.
- Interesting fact: You do not need to know the exact bias
  - The SEI metric does not require exact statistical distribution of the bias.
- **Issues**: Can only be applied at the last few rounds. Not like DFA which can also be applied at the middle rounds.

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- Key reason: The bias is only observable while the key guess is correct.
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- **Issues**: Can only be applied at the last few rounds. Not like DFA which can also be applied at the middle rounds.

# Today

- Fault attack Countermeasures
- Breaking and fixing FA countermeasures...

### It's just Redundant Computation

- Do same computation several times.
- We call it redundant branches of computation.
- When output/internal computation does not match it simply outputs a random value or outputs nothing...
- Also called concurrent error detection (CED)
- <u>Assumption</u>: The adversary cannot fault all the branches with same valued fault.
- Motivated by ideas from classical fault tolerance literature.
- Error-detection/Correction codes.



#### What is an Error-Detection/Correction Code

 Adds some redundancy in data so a fixed number of erroneous bits can be detected/corrected.

**Definition 1** (Linear Code). A binary linear [n, k]-code **C** with length n and rank k is defined as a vector subspace over  $\mathbb{F}_2^n$  which maps messages  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^k$  to codewords  $c \in \mathbf{C}$ .

**Definition 2** (Generator Matrix). A  $k \times n$ -matrix G is a generator matrix of an [n, k]-code  $\mathbb{C}$  iff it consists of k basis vectors of  $\mathbb{C}$  with length n. It can be used to map every message  $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^k$  to its corresponding codeword with  $x \cdot G = c \in \mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 3** (Minimum Distance). The minimum distance d of a linear [n, k, d]-code **C** is defined as

$$d = \min \Big\{ wt \, (c_1 \oplus c_2) \mid c_1, c_2 \in \mathbf{C}, c_1 \neq c_2 \Big\},\$$

where  $wt : \mathbb{F}_2^n \mapsto \mathbb{N}$  denotes the Hamming weight.



**Lemma 1.** A linear [n, k, d]-code can detect all erroneous codewords  $c' = c \oplus e$  with wt(e) < d.

**Lemma 2.** A linear [n, k, d]-code can correct all erroneous codewords  $c' = c \oplus e$  with wt(e) < d/2.

In other words, a linear [n, k, d]-code can detect errors up to (d-1) bits, or correct errors up to (d-1)/2 bits.

**Definition 4** (Systematic Code). The generator matrix G of a systematic code  $\mathbf{C}$  is of the form  $G = [I_k|P]$  where  $I_k$  denotes the identity matrix of size k.

- What is the advantage of systematic code?
  - Each message x is padded with check bits x' where  $x' = x \cdot P$
  - $c = \langle x | x' \rangle$
  - So, you can process the message and check bits separately.



### What is an Error-Detection/Correction Code

- Example 1:
  - Simply repeat your computation  $\lambda$  times.
  - It turns into a code  $[\lambda k, k, \lambda]$ .
  - Duplication:  $\lambda = 2$
  - Triple modular redundancy:  $\lambda = 3$
  - Overhead:  $\lambda$  times extra computation
- Example 2:
  - Add a parity bit as  $x' = \bigoplus_k x$ . simply compute the XOR of all bits
  - [k + 1, k, 2] code, with error-detection capability 1 bits. no correction
  - To check the received word *y*,  $\bigoplus_k y = \bigoplus_k x$



#### Challenges of CED: Hardware Vs. Time Tradeoff

#### Hardware Redundancy:

- Keep separate hardware for the predictor
- Almost 100% overhead for simple duplication
- Parity is sightly better, but for many other codes the overhead can be similar to duplication
- Generally, simple duplication is easier to deal with and allows several architectural choices as we see next



### Challenges of CED: Hardware Vs. Time Tradeoff

- Time Redundancy:
  - Use the same hardware/code, but run it twice
  - Negligible hardware overhead, but throughput is low
  - Efficient design can hide some overhead
- **DDR**: Double data rate.— operate on both clock edge
- So you save clock cycles and use that for
  - redundancy





Paulo Maistri and Regis Leveugle, IEEE TC 2008

### Parity-based CED

- First generate check bits
- For each operation within encryption predict check bits
- Periodically compare predicted check bits to generated ones
- Predicting check bits for each operation - most complex step
  - Should be compared to duplication
- Can be applied at different levels

word, byte, nibble



### Parity for AES

- Operations operate on bytes so byte-level parity is natural
- **ShiftRows:** Rotating the parity bits
- AddRoundKey: Add parity bits of state to those of key
- SubBytes: Expand Sbox to 256×9 add output parity bit; to propagate incoming errors (rather than having to check) expand to 512×9 – put incorrect parity bit for inputs with incorrect parity
- **MixColumns:** The expressions are:

 $p_{0,j} = p_{0,j} \oplus p_{2,j} \oplus p_{3,j} \oplus S_{0,j}^{(7)} \oplus S_{1,j}^{(7)}$   $p_{1,j} = p_{0,j} \oplus p_{1,j} \oplus p_{3,j} \oplus S_{1,j}^{(7)} \oplus S_{2,j}^{(7)}$   $p_{2,j} = p_{0,j} \oplus p_{1,j} \oplus p_{2,j} \oplus S_{2,j}^{(7)} \oplus S_{3,j}^{(7)}$   $p_{3,j} = p_{1,j} \oplus p_{2,j} \oplus p_{3,j} \oplus S_{3,j}^{(7)} \oplus S_{0,j}^{(7)}$ where  $S_{i,j}^{(7)}$  is the msb of the state byte in position i,j



Source : Koren and Krishna, Morgan-Kaufman 2007
## Parity-based CED

- Parity is just one example can be other codes as well..
- Fault coverage is not great, all single-bit faults are detected
- There are some ways of using a **non-linear code** to improve fault coverage...
- Better linear codes can also be used with higher d.



- I do not want to do the check...its just an if-else decision
- Someone can fault the check as well so I infect...

Generic sketch exhibiting the Infection CM:

- *S*, *S'* the two States
- $\mathcal{D}$  the diffusion function (such as  $\mathcal{D}(0) = 0$ )



Source : Lomne et. al. , On the Need of Randomness in Fault attack Countermeasures – Application to AES, FDTC 2012

- I do not want to do the check...its just an if-else decision
- Someone can fault the check as well so I infect...
- BLFN is a Boolean function with single bit output has to somehow encoded to multi bits





#### **Correct Computation**

**Faulty Computation** 



## Countermeasures in Short...



# Let's Break them All...



S.Patranabis, A.Chakraborty, P.H.Nguyen and D.Mukhopadhyay. A Biased Fault Attack on the Time Redundancy Countermeasure for AES. In *Proceedings of Constructive Side Channel Analysis and Secure Design 2015 (COSADE 2015)*, Berlin, Germany, April 2015



**Different Faults** 



**Identical Faults** 

#### • Improving fault collision probability

- Enhancing the probability of identical faults in original and redundant rounds
- Two major aspects
  - The size of the fault space
  - The probability distribution of faults in the fault space
- A smaller fault space enhances the fault collision probability
- A non-uniform probability distribution of faults in the fault space also enhances the fault collision probability

## Attack 1: Uniform Random Faults



## Attack 1: Biased Faults

- A total of n faults possible under a fault model F
- Each fault fi has a probability of occurrence Pr[fi]
- Let V be the variance of the fault probability distribution
- Degree of Bias of a fault model increases with increase in V

Fault Model	Pr[f1]	Pr[f2]	Pr[f3]	Pr[f4]	Pr[f5]	Pr[f6]	Pr[f7]	Pr[f8]	V
1	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0
2	0.225	0.200	0.175	0.125	0.100	0.075	0.050	0.050	0.004
3	0.500	0.250	0.125	0.050	0.050	0.025	0	0	0.026

## Attack 1: Biased Faults

- With increase in bias, collision probability increases
- Long-story short: you can get exploitable faulty ciphertexts with high probability, which you can use for attacks



## Attack 1: With Statistical Fault Analysis (SFA)



## Attack 1: Biased Faults

				Useful ciphertexts			Total Fault Injections	
Round	Fault Model	Fault Variance		N~	$N_F$ (simulation)		$N_F(\text{experimental})$	
		Type-1	Type-2	INC	Type-1	Type-2	Type-1	Type-2
8	SBU	$9.5 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.6 \times 10^{-3}$	304.75	340.48	647.52	387.67	687.91
	SBDBU	$1.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$9.2 \times 10^{-4}$	625.12	1456.25	1506.25	1448.45	1652.30
	SBTBU	$9.7 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.9\times10^-4$	1020.49	1815.60	2315.40	1974.86	2395.83
	SBQBU	$3.2 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.9 \times 10^{-5}$	1878.55	7868.82	28038.54	8003.14	30201.41
9	SBU	$9.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.5 \times 10^{-3}$	304.24	385.88	603.11	387.98	632.71
	SBDBU	$8.8 \times 10^{-2}$	$7.9 \times 10^-4$	624.65	641.18	1487.36	647.82	1556.69
	SBTBU	$8.1 \times 10^{-2}$	$6.7 \times 10^-4$	832.32	873.56	2054.00	878.23	2489.25
	SBQBU	$7.5 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.5 \times 10^{-5}$	1328.22	1788.84	17239.10	1809.25	20145.66

### Attack 1: Biased Faults



# Let's Break with a Single Fault...

## Statistical Ineffective Fault Analysis (SIFA)

- <u>The correct state space under the influence of</u> <u>faults is biased for biased faults.</u>
- Example:
  - Consider the stuck-at-0 fault at the MSB of a 4-bit state.
  - If value of the faulted state belongs to the first 8 table entries the ciphertext is correct.
  - The distribution of the state for correct values only assumes 8 possible values among 16.
  - Works for many other biased fault models.
- SIFA utilizes correct ciphertexts for attack.

C. Dobraunig, M. Eichlseder, T. Korak, S. Mangard, F. Mendel, R. Primas, "SIFA: Exploiting Ineffective Fault Inductions on Symmetric Cryptography". TCHES 2018





State distribution w/o faults



Correct State distribution with faults

## Attack 1: With Statistical Fault Analysis (SFA)



## Why SIFA is Deadly?

- Most of the FA countermeasures mutes or randomizes the faulty ciphertexts. So, in many practical situations one can never get faulty ciphertexts with a single fault injection.
  - SIFA breaks this barrier.
  - Ineffective faults are feasible for both software and hardware implementations.
  - It is not typically limited to stuck-at faults.



## Why SIFA is Deadly?

- Traditional detection/infection-based countermeasures are not useful.
- **Data-dependent Bias** in the faults is the main cause, which is the property of the fault. Maintaining an unbiased state in the presence of fault is tricky.



# A Ray of Hope

- A framework for realizing SIFA protection on block ciphers.
- Theoretically established security claims against SIFA.
- Uses state-of-the-art building blocks.
- Concrete realization on PRESENT called AntiSIFA.
- Practical security validation with laser fault injection.

#### Root cause of SIFA:

• Data-dependent bias due to fault injection



#### Ineffective Transition Probability

$$\left[ p_{x_i \to x_i}^i \right]$$

#### **Condition for SIFA**

$$\exists x, y \in \mathcal{X}_{red} : p_x^*(x) \neq p_y^*(y) \right]$$

#### **Ineffective Transition Probability of a State**

$$p_x^*(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{w'-1} p_{x_{i_j} \to x_{i_j}}^{i_j}$$

**Condition for SIFA Prevention**  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{X}_{red} : p_x^*(x) = p_y^*(y)$ **No SIFA SIFA** Happens x'x'00 0111 10 00()) 00000101 ${\mathcal X}$  ${\boldsymbol{x}}$ 101011 11



#### Randomized Domain Transform

- Parameterized security.
- SCA countermeasure masking is a *good* domain transform.
- Bypassing *n*-bit masking requires *n*-bit biased faults.

## Algorithm Transform

Input: 
$$S \in \{0, 1\}^n$$
,  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $d \leq n$   
Output:  $S^{tra} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $r \in \{0, 1\}^d$   
1:  $[S_1 \cdots S_d] \xleftarrow{\lceil n/d \rceil} S$   
2:  $r \in_R \{0, 1\}^d$   
3:  $S^{tra} \leftarrow \boxed{\text{DomTr}(\lceil S_1 \cdots S_d \rceil, r)}$   
4: Return  $(S^{tra}, r)$ 

### Algorithm DomTr

Input: 
$$[S_1 \cdots S_d] \in \{0, 1\}^n, r \in \{0, 1\}^d$$
  
Output:  $S^{tra} \in \{0, 1\}^n$   
1: for i = 1 to d:  $S_i^{tra} \leftarrow (r_i = 1)$ ?  $S_i$  :  $\overline{S_i}$   
2:  $S^{tra} \leftarrow [S_1^{tra} \cdots S_d^{tra}]$   
3: Return  $S^{tra}$ 



- Consider a stuck-at-0 fault
- The fault in ineffective with probability 0.5 for both state value 0 and 1.



#### The Transform Operation

#### d = 1

- Generate a random bit *r.*
- Complement the plaintext and entire encryption if *r* = 1.
- Protection against single-bit SIFA fault.

#### d = n

- Generate one random bit *r* for each state bit.
- Can be realized using **masking**.

#### SIFA on Masking:

- Statistical bias can be created even with unbiased bit flips.
- The fault has to be injected at the intermediate computation of an S-Box.
- Highly feasible for bit-sliced software implementations and masked hardware with intermediate registers.



C. Dobraunig, M. Eichlseder, H. Gross, S. Mangard, F. Mendel, R. Primas, "Statistical Ineffective Fault Attacks on Masked AES with Fault Countermeasures". ASIACRYPT 2018

#### Encode:

- Error correction in a pershare level.
- Suggested after each nonlinear layer, i.e. S-Box.
- Redundancy in correction operation.

# Algorithm 4 Encode



#### SIFA Countermeasure

- Perform masking and then perform correction on each share
- This we can prove that this strategy prevents SIFA attacks
  - No ineffective faults
  - Masking alone prevents biased faults.
- This strategy is also effective against FTA.
- But it still does not end here...



#### AntiSIFA:

- Transform-and-Encode for
   PRESENT
- First-order Threshold
   Implementation for masking
- Duplication code with t = 1 ( $\gamma = 3$ ) for error-correction.
- Ensures 3-bit security for fault injection outside S-Box (SIFA-1)
- Ensures 1-bit SIFA security for attack inside the S-Box (SIFA-2)
- Validated using laser faults.
- SCA security validated using TVLA.



- Fault attack countermeasure is still an partially unsolved problem
- TaE does not solve it entirely, but shows the first pathway
- Fault+Side channel combined attacks are possible more deadly and breaks some variants of TaE.
- Fault Template Attack is another fundamental attack, which does not even need correct ciphertexts to attack. It can also attack middle rounds of any block cipher
- Recently, we have developed countermeasures against FTA and combined attacks with cryptographic proofs
- But they are costly we have still a long way to go...
- Let the cat and mouse game continue...